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Terre Haute, Indiana*

THE TEACHERS COLLEGE JOURNAL

Volume XV

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THE MARCH COVER

The portrait on the cover of this month's JOURNAL is that of Edison E. Oberholtzer, superintendent of the city schools at Houston, Texas. The feature article is the first in a series of autobiographical articles written by one of Indiana State's most distinguished alumni.

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E. E. Oberholtzer: An Introduction

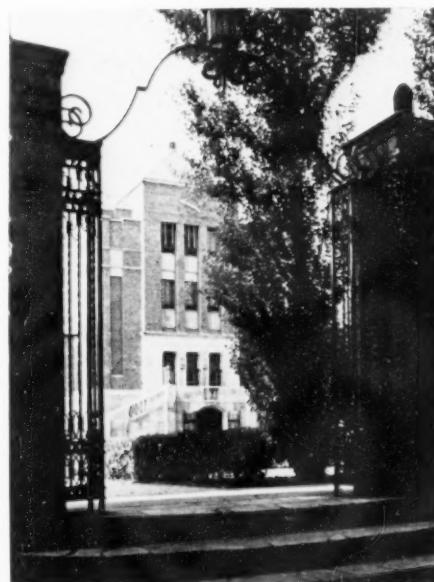
Unquestionably, the foremost city school superintendent among the living alumni of Indiana State Teachers College is Dr. E. E. Oberholtzer, superintendent of city schools at Houston, Texas. *The Journal*, therefore, is pleased to announce that with the present issue it starts a series of autobiographical articles by this illustrious alumnus and educator.

The educational career of this Hoosier teaches many lessons to educators and prospective educators. In the present issue, we see how one of America's greatest happened to become a teacher. In later issues, we shall see how one sheds off the routine details as he advances from the position of principal, entire faculty, registrar, student-adviser, janitor — in fact, the whole works — in a one-room country school, to a village principalship, to a small city superintendency, to a large city superintendency — the largest one in Dixie. In another later issue, we shall see the evolution of a municipal university, a type of institution which has become established in several American cities and promises to grow to become a fixed part of public education in large population centers throughout the land. In the life of one man — an alumnus of Indiana State Teachers College — we find lessons with wide application to a wide array of educational personnel.

At the time of his graduation from Indiana State Teachers College in 1907, Dr. Oberholtzer already had nine years of teaching experience to his credit. Those years were spent in the rural schools of Indiana. During his senior year, he was not only president of his class but served as assistant in the Mathematics Department. The 1907 *Normal Advance* has to say of him: "E. E. Oberholtzer, the man who has kept the 'balance of power' through the storm and stress of the Spring term." It was his class which founded the Students' Building fund

to which each subsequent class contributed until 1927, when the Parsons-Sandison Living Memorial Fund was established. The purpose, as stated by the class of 1907, was to create and maintain a growing fund until such a time when it had accumulated to sufficient size to be applied to the cost of erecting a Students' Building. Even though no contributions to the fund were made after 1927, the principal and accumulated interest exceeded eight thousand dollars in 1939, at which time the fund was liquidated and turned over to the committee in charge of the new Student Union Building. A memorial recognizing this gift has been placed in the lower entrance.

Until 1909, Dr. Oberholtzer served as supervising principal of the Terre Haute schools. He received the degree of Bachelor of Philosophy from the University of Chicago in 1910, and that same year became superintendent of schools in Evansville, Indiana. He left Evansville the next year to accept the same position in Clinton, Indiana. In 1915, he went to Tulsa, Oklahoma.



A view of the main entrance of the Student Union Building for which the class of 1907 created a living fund.

and remained there until 1925. He has held his present position since 1924.

Superintendent Oberholtzer has not restricted his energies to this one position. Since 1919, as sumer professor at the Illinois Normal School, he has at all times been either a special lecturer or a member of one or more state and national committees. He was state director of the Oklahoma National Education Association from 1918 to 1925, vice president of the National Council of Education in 1921, president of the American Association of School Administrators in 1954, and vice president in 1955. At present, he is a member of the Texas State Teachers Association executive committee and Phi Delta Kappa.

Another way of ascertaining whether or not a person has made, or is making, tangible contributions to his profession is to look at his list of publications. The *Education Index* lists for Dr. Oberholtzer twenty-seven articles published since 1950, which cover a wide range in subject matter. He is also coauthor of a series of three textbooks in English, entitled *Language Arts for Modern Youth*¹ and of *Modern Life Speller*,² in three volumes.

Edison Oberholtzer, as he was known in his home town forty years ago, was one of the inspirers of the editor to become a teacher. He was so much older than his boyish admirer that he did not even know of his existence. But the editor was a pupil in the class of that "oldest sister" mentioned by Dr. Oberholtzer in that "village school" Edison entered after completing the sixth grade in the country. When Edison visited his home community, the editor's father pointed him out to his son and said, "Maybe when you grow up and get to go to Indiana State Normal School you too can be a successful teacher."

¹E. E. Oberholtzer, Mabel V. Cassell, and Herbert B. Bruner, *Language Arts for Modern Youth*, 3 vol., (New York: Charles E. Merrill Company, 1959.)

²E. E. Oberholtzer, Fred C. Ayer, and Clifford Woody, *Modern-Life Speller*, 5 vol., (Yonkers-on-Hudson: World Book Company, 1938.)

How I Became a Teacher

E. E. Oberholtzer

EARLY FAMILY LIFE

I have been given the assignment to tell how I became a teacher. This assignment requires that I tell something about the early impressions of school and what I found there which interested me in human affairs.

I was born in Owen County, Indiana, and moved with my family to Clay County, Indiana, when I was two years old. I was next to the youngest in a family of eleven children, there being six sisters and four brothers, all of whom were my early teachers, except the youngest, for whom I became teacher. As a member of a large family, my father being a lumberman as well as farmer and contractor, I was thrown much in contact with the "hired hands," some of whom were not ideal companions for younger children. My father, however, was a stern disciplinarian and his hearthstone lectures and talks did much to impress the children with the proper kind of conduct. My mother, however, was the one to whom we all looked for sympathy and understanding. Her sole devotion was to her family.

Among the many stories that my father used for driving home citizenship lessons was the one designed to instill the feeling that the public school was an American institution of first importance. For this institution he was unequivocal regarding our loyalty and behavior. No "lickings" were reported at home, a code of ethics rigidly observed among us children—not that we were so ethically inclined as for self-protection from a double dose of whatever the teacher had given us. My father had been a teacher for a brief time and told us the story of how he walked five miles, carried the oldest sister to school, taught all day, returned home to chop

wood for the house use and to do the other chores on the little farm. Two years' teaching was enough for him. He became a businessman, but his faith in school and his eagerness to were maintained throughout his lifetime.

Being next to the youngest in the family, and owing to the untimely death of my parents, I experienced much from the many "bosses," my older brothers and sisters. Yet I learned many things which helped me to appreciate boys' and girls' ways.

MY FIRST SCHOOL

So far as I know, I was not very interested in school until one morning early in September one of my older sisters called me in, began to scrub my ears and neck, telling me how I would have to behave in school, what the teacher would do, and how the teacher would not spare the rod. It was somewhat cruel to carry into the school these impressions, but this was the usual traditional first day introduction of the beginners in the school of those times.

So well do I remember my school in the country with an enrollment of sixty. I entered with a class of fourteen beginners. Like most country schools, the smaller children were put in the small seats in the front row, sometimes as many as four in the big double seats. My absorbing interest in the first hour was to watch the teacher and try to see what his maneuvers meant. The first day passed without the appearance or use of any of the "weapons" stacked behind the master's desk. Morning recess came, then noon, but not until in the afternoon did we have one brief recitation. Our text was the old blue-backed speller with exercises consisting of repeating in concert the letters of the alphabet, the class including all the

beginners standing in a circle around the teacher. I escaped punishment anticipated during the first day, but was scared on the second day when I became too friendly with the neighbor boy who sat next to me. On the whole, this first teacher was a man who was kind and sympathetic to all those students who were interested in study.

After five years in this country school, I learned to read, spell and write; learned some geography and history—the memory part—but got most of my real learning around the fireside at home. Among these teachers during the first years in the country school, two stand out in my memory—one, the typical bearded man, a sincere teacher and scholar for that time, but one who knew little about management of boys and girls; the other, my oldest sister, most conscientious and careful in her teaching, and always sure that she disciplined her own brothers and sisters so that the other students would feel that no partiality was shown.

However, the country school of the early day had some advantages. Under proper leadership it was a real democratic institution, boys and girls had good times, and school life was the seed-bed for social ideals and community interests, topped with social events. The old spelling bee, indigenous to rural schools, was a gladiators' tournament for those who wanted to wrestle with Webster's unknown and learn spelling and pronunciation. The champion speller took equal importance with the champion football player of these days.

Having grown up within two miles of a village school, I was transferred from the country school to the village school after I had completed the sixth grade. The village school was a new institution to me. It had five or six teachers; it had a principal who was the leader of the school; it involved larger groups of boys and girls; it brought about new experiences for this country boy, compelled to meet the city bullies without either friendly companions or a chance to run.

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HAIL, THE PRINCIPAL

This first day, trouble brought me face to face with the principal most dreaded of all, but who later became my ideal, both as man and teacher. This incident was the beginning of the lasting influence of this teacher upon me. Chagrined by this predicament, I was reluctant to return the second day. I was never taught at home to fight. In the country school there was little fighting, except on the way home from school, but I had schooled myself to fight because, for some unknown reason, I felt the responsibility of protecting both my older and my younger brothers.

Such responsibilities threw me into many difficulties. My first day at the village school consisted of closely watching the students to learn their school ways, chiefly standing aloof on the school grounds, feeling as though I were a "foreigner" in the group. Without reason, as I recall, in the morning of this first day, before school, at recess, and at the noon period, I was "ganged" by the bullies of the group, a real experience in hazing. I was forced to fight and fight I did, only to find myself in greater difficulty. The principal kept us (the gang and me) in after school. I was the last one dismissed. I can now understand why: the principal, aware that I was a new student, wanted to know me personally. He got my story of the difficulty. He talked to me in a kindly way and led me to understand that the school's duty was first to sustain character, and, if to preserve self-respect, I must fight, then I should meet the bullies prepared to give them all that was within me. These suggestions proved encouraging, for out of this came the beginning of a life-long friendship with these boys, the bullies of that school.

THE PRINCIPAL'S SPIRITUAL POWER

I don't mean to say that the principal encouraged such things as a school policy. He punished, but he fitted his punishment to the individual. Out of such discipline came strength and encouragement. His discipline was constructive. I attended

this village school until I had finished two years of that high school directed by that principal. It was he who in large measure influenced me to become a teacher. This principal was more than a teacher; he was a leader, more especially of boys. Those were pioneering days before school excursions and activities were a part of school life, yet this principal, devoted to boy leadership, would set aside his Saturdays to go to the country with groups of boys and spend the day with them. It might be a fishing trip, or a hunting trip, or a trip to study the birds and trees. He was both nature lover and scientist of first magnitude. We learned much from him about nature. He told us about the fish and the way they fed and lived; he knew each bird and its habitat; he could pluck a flower and give its family name, tell its qualities and its beauty.

As I look back over these Saturday journeys I can understand that this principal's teaching was due, not so much to his love of nature, but to his desire to know and understand boys, and to teach them lessons of practical living, and to cultivate great aspirations and love of achievement. Flowers and birds became living characters possessed with those human qualities which young students needed to learn and imitate.

THE PRINCIPAL KNEW LITERATURE

The Principal knew good literature. He used it for character portrayal. The Hoosier Schoolmaster, Ralph, and the bulldog known as "Bull" were characters which he made live from Edward Eggleston's story which he read during the opening exercises. Maybe he did not teach his students a great deal of book-learning, but somehow he did inspire them to worthy living. He gave students a chance for leadership. He made assignments to fit the interests of boys and girls and gave them experiences which were needed for their growth and development.

I remember well my first assignment as a schoolmaster for a Friday afternoon which gave me the first thrill of

teaching. I presided over after-school activities and was chargeable for the conduct of the group whether the program was dramatics, speech-making, or a mathematical contest. The principal's skill in managing boys and girls made him a great master in the schoolroom. He was the inspired leader who made his students feel they wanted to be like the Image portrayed in the Great Stone Face. His benevolence, his sympathy, and his love for life were the magic touches which transformed stones in the rough, his boys and girls, into followers of the good life.

Through the inspiration of this principal and through the guidance of my older sister, I was fortunate enough to attend, as my first, a small church college instrumental in helping to shape my career and understanding of the obligations of life. It was here that I learned to know the Y. M. C. A. It was here where I received individual instruction in the commercial subjects, the teacher being an elderly lady whose influence was chiefly character building, although she did teach her subject. Because of this experience, I have always been very considerate of the small college for the beginning college student.

I attended this college two winter terms, for the reason that I used my summers and the fall to earn enough to pay my way through the winter term. The personal contacts with teachers in this small college influenced me further to aspire to the work of a teacher.

After the first term at college, I began trying to secure a school to teach. The first step was to get a county license to teach. I was successful in getting the license but was told by the trustee that I was too young and too small to begin. However, after the term of this trustee expired and another came into office, I renewed my persuasive powers and secured my first school, located in a rather remote country area in what was known as the "backwoods" country. This first year as a country schoolteacher was a

(Continued on page 92)

Increase in Adolescent Delinquency in Wartime

Josephine A. Evans

Miss Evans graduated from Indiana State Teachers College in June, 1945, on the four-year elementary curriculum. While an undergraduate, she was student clinician in the Speech Clinic and a member of the Elementary Club, Future Teachers Association, Student Council, and Student Publications Committee.

Following this report by Miss Evans is a short article on the same subject by Rev. Backus of Indianapolis.

Characteristics of the Delinquent

One might consider the characteristics of the adolescent delinquent as follows:

1. Lower than average in intelligence — I. Q. from 80 to 90 for the average.
2. Retarded academically.
3. Habitually truant — in many cases.
4. Dislike for school.
5. Sometimes physically abnormal.
6. Friends of low caliber.

England Warned Us

At the end of the first year of war in England, the English Board of Education reported that the number of children under 14 convicted of offenses was 41 per cent higher than in the previous year; in the age group from 14 to 17, the number of children convicted of offenses was 22 per cent higher than in the previous year. The increase was largely in burglars, looters, and thieves.

It was found that in the juvenile courts, adolescent girls had been reported as delinquent in increasing numbers on the ground that they were beyond their parents' control. The unnatural social conditions were pointed out as the causes. The adolescent girl is passing through a difficult phase.

Sex plays a far more self-conscious part in her mental make-up than in that of the average boy. The general atmosphere of unrest, the laxity of parental control, and superabundance of young soldiers of romantic disposition, conspire with the black-out and air-raid shelter to put temptations in her way. Most of the girls that are reported come from respectable families and have never been in trouble before. They are frequently brought to the juvenile court after having been missed for days or sometimes weeks. Jobs can be had for the asking. The public air-raid shelter is always available for shelter. Boy friends who have money to throw away can be had. Most of the time the girls who are found are pregnant when found and are nearly always infected with venereal diseases. One could hardly call

these girls wicked; for they are just victims of adverse circumstances.

England told Americans of these problems that arise because of war so that Americans could prepare for a prevention of such.

Increase in Adolescent Delinquency in Wartime in the United States

In the *Survey Midmonthly* of April, 1945, the following statement by J. Slawson appeared:

Between 5,600, and 5,800 boys and girls under seventeen are brought into Michigan's 85 Juvenile Courts each year as delinquents. At least 22,000 additional children are handled annually by probation officers, policemen, and sheriffs' deputies outside of court. The state's delinquency bill amounts to more than \$1,100,000 a year. The report points to the increase in delinquency characteristics of a war period. In the present crisis this tendency is appearing first in war production centers and in communities near army, naval, and air corps. The first to show the disorganization effects of wartime are teen-age girls and adolescents of war-job mothers.

The New York State Board of Social Welfare reports an increase of 22 per cent in 15 upstate industrial counties, while in 59 other counties, not subject to the pressures of war work, delinquency causes actually declined 2 per cent.

School officials of Washington, D. C., reported that the city of Washington has already experienced a 55 per cent increase in adolescent delinquency during an 18-month period and the number of work permits issued to 15-, 16-, and 17-year-old children has more than quadrupled.

Following the episode at Pearl Harbor, Los Angeles County officials found that the increase in adolescent delinquency was 17 per cent.

The increase in delinquency in Marion County, Indiana, is 157 per cent, according to Wilfred Bradshaw, former Judge of the Juvenile Court of Marion County. The delinquency increase in Indiana is said to be partly due to the change in the delinquency age from 16 to 18 years.

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J. Edgar Hoover, Director of the Federal Bureau of Investigation, feels that there has been a tremendous decrease in the moral standards of adolescents in the girls more than in the boys. He stated in a United Press report which was made February 19, 1943, that there had been an increase of 55.7 per cent in the arrests of minor girls in 1942 over 1941; an increase of 64.8 per cent in prostitution and "commercialized vice"; an increase of 104.7 per cent for other sex offenses; an increase of 59.9 per cent for drunkenness; and an increase of 69.6 per cent for "disorderly conduct" among minor girls.

Contributing Factors in the Increase of Adolescent Delinquency in Peacetime

Before the beginning of World War II, the following things might have been cited as the contributing factors of a delinquent youth:

1. A broken home.
2. Illegitimacy at birth.
3. Parental failure to understand and appreciate the nature of their responsibility toward the child.
4. Parental maladjustment.
5. Misuse of leisure time.
6. Rigidity of school curriculum.
7. Questionable movies.
8. Improperly led gangs in socially bad environments.
9. Sex differences.
10. Some member of the family delinquent also.
11. One or both parents of low-grade intelligence.
12. Poor physical condition.

Contributing Factors in the Decided Increase in Delinquency of Adolescents During Wartime

There is but a slight difference between the factors that contribute to delinquency in the time of peace and those that contribute to delinquency during the time of war. Actually, what causes it in wartime; however, the factors in wartime are more pronounced and serious. Some of the causes of delinquency during World War II may be listed as follows:

1. Fathers are taken by armed services.

2. Mothers must frequently work long hours outside the home in order to aid in supporting the families.

3. Teachers, club leaders, and other adults who normally offer guidance and counsel to boys and girls, are drawn off into war services.

4. Adolescents react intensely to the excitement of the war situation.

5. Adolescents live over again the daring adventures of their older brothers and are deeply affected by the lifting of the ordinary taboos against killing, taking of property, and violation of personal liberty.

6. Adolescents are earning more money than ever before and are unprepared for the wealth that is suddenly theirs. Consequently they are likely to lose their heads.

7. Employment practices are careless in regard to minors during the war.

8. Closing of clubs and other recreational institutes in the time of war.

9. Breakdown of the educational system.

10. General let-down in disciplinary practices.

11. General increase in nervous tension and irritability.

All of the foregoing causes are to be considered seriously because they have present-day delinquent adolescent cases on the increase.

Efforts to Control Delinquency in Wartime

Citizens and social workers have had many suggestions as to how we might alleviate this increasing adolescent delinquency rate. The Massachusetts Committee on Public Safety has a program whereby it is enlisting the services of 50,000 youths who will be trained to carry on the work of messengers during emergencies. The idea is not that the boys worked during emergencies only, but that they work every day whether a serious emergency arises or not. Some of their energies are to be absorbed in gathering waste paper, scrap metal, helping with rubbish collection, assisting in traffic work, etc.

The Michigan Child Guidance Institute's director has suggested the general expansion of probation facilities for juveniles, development of foster homes for problem children, establishment of a state child welfare council, and county child welfare boards.

New York City Public Schools have a six-point program to reduce delinquency. Superintendent John E. Wade said that the six measures decided upon are:

1. Reduction in the size of classes.

2. Assignment of additional teachers to difficult schools and underprivileged areas.

3. Allocation of additional recreational facilities to underprivileged areas.

4. Additional guidance service in all schools, with emphasis on attention to the needs of the individual child.

5. Concentration of the activities of the new Division of Child Welfare in underprivileged areas.

6. Closer co-operation among the various community agencies dealing with the problems of maladjustment and delinquency.

In a number of states the day-care plan has been inaugurated. *The Survey Midmonthly* of February, 1943, outlined this plan in the various states as follows:

In Florida, the federal funds will be used to pay the salaries of one day-care consultant who is to be on the staff of the Child Welfare Division, and of five day-care workers assigned to specific critical areas. Carolina's plan provides for a state supervisor of day-care and child welfare workers in eight critical areas. Mississippi will use its grant to add three area day-care workers to the state staff, to work under the direction of the state supervisor of the division of child welfare.

Other states have proposed such activities that are worthwhile for the development of the child in every respect. Some of the measures proposed by various states are:

1. Keeping boys and girls busy with activities that have real personal appeal.

2. Having a curfew ordinance.

3. Allowing opportunities for athletics, manual arts, hobby, and social clubs.

4. Utilizing of municipal playgrounds and public-school auditoriums to their fullest capacity.

5. Having churches attack delinquency by showing adolescents how they can serve their country, and their

community through unselfish participation in the war effort, no matter how small it may be.

6. Reorganizing programs in correctional schools so that they relate to programs of defense effort in order that the children in these institutions may be made to feel that they, too, have a part in bringing our nation through the present crisis.

7. Giving attention to the family as an action group and setting up a new program.

8. Teaching children to care for their personal belongings and the property of others.

Every day, data are being compiled as to the possible causes and preventions of increasing delinquency problems. Very few statistical reports have been made concerning studies of this kind and those that have been made have not yet been released; however, psychologists and sociologists are pondering the question and are arriving at very definite conclusions concerning it.

REV. BACKUS' VIEW OF THE JUVENILE DELINQUENCY PROBLEM

Our city has been aroused by stories in the newspapers telling of crimes committed by youths. It is easy for unreflective persons to jump to the conclusion that we are in the midst of an unprecedented juvenile crime wave, and to fall into the ancient error of assuming that the present generation of young people are a hopeless lot. The facts do not warrant any such conclusions.

The daily statistical report of the Juvenile Aid Division of our City Police for December 6, shows that 2,111 white boys had been brought in by officers this year as against 2,006 to the same date last year. This is an increase of 105, or about 5 per cent in the year. We must remember that in this period the population of Indianapolis has grown a great deal due to the influx of war workers and that our city now has more children than ever before.

Of the total number of cases handled by the Juvenile Aid Division two-thirds were for minor offenses, such as throwing rocks, shooting an air rifle, truancy—the inevitable pranks of youth rather than crimes. Of the more serious cases such as burglary, stealing automobiles, larceny—there was actually a decline of one under the number of cases last year.

Even so Juvenile Delinquency represents a serious problem in the community. We must remember in assessing the situation that there are certain contributing factors. These boys and

girls who are getting into trouble have grown up in one of the most tempestuous periods of human history, which makes the attainment of a social adjustment more difficult than in normal times. An increase in anti-social activity on the part of young people is a part of the war picture in all countries. The home is disrupted by the absence of the father, and even more so when the mother is working in a war industry. The young people feel frustrated because they can not share in the war as those who are a few years older do, and their tensions impel them towards activities that get them into trouble with the authorities.

Even when we have attempted to account for the present situation in these terms, the problem of anti-social behavior on the part of our youth is a serious one that is always with us. What are we going to do about it?

I am in entire agreement with Judge Mark W. Rhoads of the Juvenile Court in placing the primary responsibility on the home; it is there preeminently that the child acquires his standards and his habits of conduct. Parents should realize that the most important business they have is to see to it that these little ones develop under the influence of an example that elicits the best in them and establishes them in social ways of living.

I disagree emphatically with the Judge as to how parents can best accomplish this. He repudiates the in-

sight of modern psychology, charging it with the chief responsibility for the lawlessness of the present generation of youth, and advocates a return to the "Mosaic" method of strict discipline and punishment in the rearing of children. The psychologists' insistence on freedom of expression for the children and the emphasis on love rather than fear make much greater demands on parents than do the strong hand of discipline and the stern voice of authority, and too many parents have interpreted it negatively, simply as the absence of restraint. But the insight of the moderns into the way in which human personality represents a distinct advance and we are not going back to days that have passed beyond recall.

The rearing of children is always a difficult and perplexing matter. The best and most enlightened of parents make mistakes. But there is no reason to despair. Each new generation presents us with splendid human material; just think how grandly the youth of our armed services have responded to the demands of war, believing our fears of a few years ago for them. The generation now coming on is just as good material. Our task is to mobilize all our resources of understanding, refine our methods of dealing with them, and give them the opportunity to show us what they really can do.

—Burdette Backus, *Indianapolis Unitarian Bulletin*, December 17, 1945.

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Bibliographies for Religious and Character Education

Marian A. Kittle

The following references are grouped into three bibliographies. Although there is much overlapping in the subjects of religious education and character education, for the convenience of those who wish to use these bibliographies as reference guides, it was thought best to keep the two subjects separate so far as possible.

The first bibliography includes reading materials found in the Indiana State Teachers College Library on character education. The second includes materials dealing directly with religious education. The third has to do with materials found in the same library pertaining to tests and testing procedures. In order that the literature would be recent enough to fit into the present-day curriculum, only books, pamphlets, bulletins, and theses published since 1920 were included.

No effort was made to record all the listed periodical references, since the READERS' GUIDE TO PERIODICAL LITERATURE alone contained for character education only something like 550 references from 1919¹ through 1941.

Further bibliographies will be found in nearly all of the following references.

CHARACTER EDUCATION

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¹Volume 6 of the Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature contained references for the years, 1919-1921, inclusive.

March, 1944



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What Next, Alma Mater?

John Erle Grinnell

As Dean of Instruction at Indiana State Teachers College, Dr. Grinnell should be in a position to make some fairly sound predictions as to the moves which must be made if higher education is to serve adequately each and every one of us. In the article which follows, Dean Grinnell discusses three changes which he believes must be made in our educational setup.

While Man has never deluded himself with the fancy that he could stop time, he has in all ages complacently insisted that "what was good enough for my father was good enough for me." In short, he has denied to the progress of man on the earth what he admits to the mysterious essence he calls time. One may march on, indeed must march on, while the other must be arrested at whatever stage pleases him. Any attempt by visionaries — he calls them "radicals" — to goad society into catching up, he fights, and he hounds the visionaries into jail as enemies of the state or into public derision as crack-brains.

Man's institutions have the nature of man. They are not likely to be better; they are not likely to be worse. They live longer than a single generation of man, but their patterns of tradition and habit, like man's, flow from generation to generation with a minimum of change. Only events that rock the foundations of man's society are likely to affect seriously his institutions. If anything, the institutions lag behind the man, since the storm reaches them only after it has gone crashing through man himself.

Even when he can no longer blind himself to the fact that the circumstances of his daily life are changing, man tries to preserves the old ways in his church, his lodge, his school. It is his way of escaping reality, of denying that his world is not what it used to be. The older the civilization, or the

older the institution, the less likely it is to fall smoothly in step with the times.

What can be expected of the college, one of America's proudest institutions? Like Thomas Wolfe, we of the colleges know "we can't go home again." We know, moreover, that we can not go on with the war nor come out of it on our feet without having



changed so much in all our ways of living that our colleges, unless they change with us, will be mirrors of the past rather than searchlights into the future. Leaders of higher education are beginning to see the shape of the world ahead and are planning moves that would throw the colleges into the middle of the stream of progress. It is not assured that they will be able to bring their plans to fruition — for a generation. Patrons, faculties, legislatures, the groceryman, the carpenter, and the dairy farmer, who control all human institutions, will demur. They will wonder "if the old ways aren't better, even for now."

In the depth of our world agony we know that education is more important to the peace and sanity of the

world than all the threats or promises made in any Geneva. Moreover, we must clear for determined action by admitting that education, particularly higher education, has not served well enough in the past. Three great and necessary changes must be brought about beginning now and continuing until our colleges and universities are giving higher education to all men and women who can profit by it, and teaching all people directly or indirectly world points of view and the responsibility of democracy.

The first of the important moves that must be made is already launched by the government. It concerns the democratization of higher education. In the past, the publicly supported facilities of higher education were granted not so much to those who had the necessary intelligence as to those whose parents had the more obviously necessary money to make possible the fashionable experience of "going to college." Some of the competent of any typical high-school graduating class were condemned to blind-alley employment in support of indigent families while others who had given ample evidence of scholastic incompetence were herded into college halls to lower what was called higher education.

There must be ample education of the proper kind for every one, subsidized by the state. However, a different principle of selection must obtain if we are to make higher education "take" with any effectiveness. We must find in the school those who should follow the professions, those who can contribute to the foundations of science, philosophy, and art, and we must give them their chance — not for their sakes but for the sakes of all of us. Similarly, we must send the money bags to vocational schools if they are best fitted for vocational schools. Ability to pay must not be the open sesame to professional courses; nothing but the requisite intellectual competence and suitable evidence of character should admit.

The corollary, of course, is that education beyond the high school must

be more diversified than now. All of the many specialized types of training needed for the intensified production and expanded distribution of the post-war world will be made available in institutions running parallel to the upper years of high school or subsequent to them. Under proper guidance in the high school, the stigma attached to vocational education will disappear. When financial backing is not the major consideration in planning a school career, we will not have so many Joe Colleges spending thousands of dollars proving they can never be journalists or engineers or high-school teachers.

Of equal importance will be the effect on the colleges of having only students capable of doing the work required. Standards of scholarship will rise, research into current problems will flourish, and creative effort will be stimulated. Without the slugs and the misfits, the work can go forward at a much more lively pace, and there are not likely to be persistent traditions against high scholarship and distinctive achievement. Students selected will be under obligation to the state to make maximum use of the education given them for the betterment of humanity and will thus return the value to the state.

Under such a plan, there must be more guidance throughout the educational process. All fields of education must exercise some of the controls already used in such highly developed fields as medicine, yet the needs of the country rather than the wish of a group or profession must be the ultimate criterion of how many should be educated for a given service. Too often vocational or professional groups may wish to protect their favored position by permitting fewer than the number required for replacement or expansion to be trained. Approximate quotas might be established each year for all of the fields for which special education is demanded. Women will undoubtedly play a more prominent role in most vocations and professions than they have in the past.

The second important move will be

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the internationalization of higher education. As a principle it is not altogether new. Exchange scholarships, fellowships, and instructorships existed before the war and gave cosmopolitan tone to many campuses. It can no longer be left to chance and the educational perspicuity of a few progressive universities or colleges. Government under the guidance of a Council of Higher Education, should move to establish exchanges of students and professors in all countries of the world. These exchanges should reach into every college at home and abroad. Ten thousand exchange scholarships of a thousand dollars a year would amount to only ten million dollars and would do more to establish world understandings among all people than anything else could do.

These scholarships should be on a competitive basis by congressional districts or by colleges, with a definite quota assigned to each unit each year. Many more than the allotted number of students would enter the competition so that only the best prepared linguistically and otherwise need be sent. If the countries exchanging with us are unable to finance their end of the exchange, we should make the payments. Our students' returning and carrying into every community understanding of another people will not be of more benefit to us as a nation than our visitors' carrying back to their countries good will toward us and firm friendships with our people. Through such ties, enduring international friendships can be welded. A world fellowship grounded in youth and renewed year after year will be the best insurance for enduring peace. The constant interflow of teachers from all school levels internationalizing education will banish the last vestige of provincial thinking within a generation. A practice set by so influential a nation as the United States must lead to its adoption by many other nations. A few of them have already made important beginnings in exchanging students and instructors of higher education.

The third change fraught with far-

reaching significance is, like the others, neither a new concept nor a new practice. It is the extension of education beyond adolescence through centers for continuation study. These centers will frequently be connected with universities or colleges and may resemble the center at the University of Minnesota, where so many worthwhile experiments in adult study on higher educational levels have been conducted for about a decade.

All schools beyond the elementary years should operate evenings as well as during the day and should have offerings sufficiently varied to meet vocational and cultural needs of all the people of the community. As in the regular schools, vocational guidance must play a prominent part. Vocational placements will follow as a logical practice and will bring prestige and popularity to education. The major cost of the adult schools, as with the schools for adolescents, must be borne by public taxation.

Education must be sought instead of avoided by the masses, and it must deal firmly and honestly with such practical matters as installment buying, personal finance, and leisure arts, home-making, home mechanics, marriage problems, local government, consumer movements, public and personal hygiene, and budgeting. Colleges must believe that their graduates are only partly educated if they do not wish to continue to study after graduation. Colleges should, and doubtless will, provide continuous opportunity for further non-credit study in the arts and sciences as well as in highly specialized areas of the professional fields.

Much of this study will be organized on a co-operative basis under the encouragement and direction of colleges or university agencies. Doctors, for example, may gather from a wide area for two or three weeks of intensive study of specific medical fields or problems such as urology or cancer progress or the sulfa drugs. Writers, musicians, artists, and other groups would be given opportunities for

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The Navy Reports to The College

Harry E. Elder

During the first fifteen days of September, Mr. Elder represented Indiana State Teachers College at "The Orientation Course for College Administrators." This course was for the purpose of giving those colleges with Navy V-12 contingents a realistic picture of the Navy by representing each department and showing its relation to the Navy as a whole.

Mr. Elder has written a very interesting report of the things he saw and heard while in attendance.

INTRODUCTION

The United States Navy: What is it? Where is it? What is its function? How is it organized? What are its ideals? How does it procure its personnel? How does it educate its officers? What are its relations with the colleges and universities of our nation? How has it been related to the past history and how will it be related to the future history of America? How is it influenced by the distribution of races, raw materials, continents, and oceans? These and numerous other related questions, pertinent not only to the welfare of our citizens but of all mankind, formed the basis for the curriculum of "The Orientation Course for College Administrators" given by the Navy to a class consisting of representatives of forty-eight of the 131 colleges with Navy V-12 contingents during the first fifteen days of September, 1943. With headquarters at the Midshipmen's School at Columbia University for the first thirteen days and at the Marine Base at Quantico, Virginia, for the last two days, the academic and naval atmospheres were highly challenging and motivating to the members of the class. The remainder of this paper is a summarization of infor-

mation reported by the Navy through fifty-six or more addresses, ten or more films, numerous bus trips to special schools, navy yards, docks, air ports, artillery ranges, etc., and through di-



rect conversation with uncounted numbers of the naval personnel of the places visited.

SOME GENERAL ASSUMPTIONS

Throughout the course all naval officers seemed to be in agreement on certain basic assumptions such as the following: (1) "The colleges have joined for the duration or longer." (2) The efficiency of junior officers of the Navy will be determined by how well the V-12 Program is executed by the colleges. (3) Had the Navy had the means of training officers during the twenty years immediately following World War I, the emergency measures of today would be unnecessary. (4) "The most efficient killing machine of all recorded history which we are now making of the 11,000,000 men of the Army and Navy will be useless when the present war ends, and morale will be terrible unless we

continue the right kind of an educational program and arrange for a slow and gradual demobilization." (5) Colleges will continue to play a most important role after the armistice. (6) There is no room in the Navy for "men with muscle only," and the higher the naval rank the more the officers must be able to work intelligently with other people. Therefore, to place individuals where they may serve most effectively, the Bureau of Naval Personnel must be and is one of the most detailed and efficient organizations in the world with a system of records, identification, and classification by which, for example, an expert on Diesel engines who can speak a foreign language can be located in a few seconds. (7) The "will to win" and "generosity to a vanquished foe" are traditions which have been continuous since the time of John Paul Jones. (8) Our entire naval history is more fascinating and thrilling than any book of fiction.

THE FLEET

"The fleet" refers to the collective naval force—the ships—of our nation. Depending upon the mission to be performed, it is subdivided into battle, scouting, base, and submarine forces, all of which are strategically distributed over all of the oceans so that in a reasonably short time a "task force," designed for special assignment, can be organized. In other words, at the present time the United States possesses not a one-ocean or a two-ocean but an *all-ocean* navy. This broad coverage is accompanied by an equally broad and effective distribution of supplies and equipment. Ours is the only navy in the world which can refuel successfully on the high seas without stopping; tankers perform this feat with ships sailing at only a slightly reduced speed. The significance of tankers is fully realized when it is understood that no ship can run at high speed more than seventy two hours without refueling.

SHIPS OF THE NAVY

As just stated, the fleet is composed of all of the ships of the navy. These

ships differ according to function in size, construction, equipment, armor, armament, speed, cruising range, seaworthiness, maneuverability, and expendability. Our new battleships—with their offensive armament and defensive armor—are considered the most independent and death-dealing of all ships. Carrying sixteen-inch guns and protected by an eighteen-inch armor, these monsters still make from thirty-three to thirty-five knots per hour. With a beam limited to 109 feet, because the Panama Canal locks are only 110 feet wide, the distance from stem to stern may approach 1000 feet. Gun barrels are frequently sixty feet long and so manageable and accurate that hits are frequently scored at distances of eight or ten miles on the first salvo! With such protection it is only logical that, although originally the airplane carriers protected the battleship, the reverse is now true. In a recent engagement, when thirty-two enemy planes simultaneously attacked one United States battleship, all thirty-two were shot down.

Battle cruisers are faster than battleships but "thin skinned"—their armor being only two or three inches thick. They carry numerous antiaircraft as well as other guns. Small cruisers weigh from 5,000 to 10,000 tons, travel at a high rate of speed, and have a range of from 16,000 to 19,000 miles; the larger ones weigh up to 24,000 tons and carry more supplies and armament. Special antiaircraft cruisers are small, maneuverable, and expendable.

Aircraft carriers have speed enough to travel with the other vessels constituting a task force, but they usually possess neither armament nor armor. They are designed to extend the range of planes by furnishing a mobile and advanced base. The *Enterprise*, for example, carried between eighty and one hundred planes for operational purposes. Within twenty months after December 7, 1941, the United States had multiplied by ten the number of such ships. These vessels are very essential in convoying both merchant shipping and battle

task forces; regardless of the nature of the convoy, dive bombers and torpedo planes are available to furnish protection against an enemy attack whether it comes from below, on, or above the surface of the ocean. Whether a plane is catapulted or whether it leaves the carrier by a direct take-off as from a ground base, it can be recovered, after its mission has been achieved, while the carrier is under way and maintaining its position in the convoy. This constant protection is divided into three parts: (1) The *inner* air patrol searches for submarines in the immediate vicinity of the convoy or task force. (2) The *intermediate* patrol remains 40 or 50 miles away to keep enemy submarines from coming to the surface. (3) Other planes make forenoon and afternoon round-trips out for 200 to 300 miles within a given sector for reconnaissance purposes.

Destroyers are more of a general purpose type of ship. They have powerful engines, carry torpedoes and depth charges, and are especially valuable in convoy service. They usually refuel from cruisers while traveling at approximately fifteen knots per hour. With their radar, sound equipment, and "mouse-trap" and "hedgehog" devices for depositing depth charges and throwing explosive projectiles, their lethality with respect to enemy submarines is almost beyond comprehension. The wonder is not how they ever hit but how they ever miss their sub-surface enemies!

Submarines are as lethal in their own way as battleships, cruisers, and destroyers. Although, because of their "thin skin," they are extremely vulnerable, their ability to remain out of sight enables them to achieve feats unthinkable in connection with other fighting ships. Even though their speed below the surface is not more than ten knots and their batteries are depleted within one hour when running at top speed, they can remain in enemy harbors for long periods of time—a month or more—unknown to the enemy. For the first twenty-one months of the present war, the Navy Department credits our submarines

with 77 per cent of the sinkings of enemy shipping and all other methods with the remaining 25 percent. Speaking from personal experience in describing the work of submarines, one officer told of prolonged operations in the exact path of enemy shipping. On this particular occasion, the entire crew remained away from the base for sixty-four days without refueling or taking on food supplies, and yet, after all this time, one-third of the fuel oil—about 50,000 gallons—remained. The chief reason why a submarine must return to its base after a prolonged period is to provide for its crew a period for rest and recreation.

Auxiliary vessels—tenders, repair and hospital ships, landing craft of many kinds—work in co-operation with the regular fighting ships and are just as useful and indispensable in both offensive and defensive actions.

To design, construct, maintain, and equip 18,000 ships is the monumental task of the Bureau of Ships. Hundreds of pages of plans and specifications must be prepared and submitted before shipyards can make intelligent bids for the construction of a single ship. Researchers by the hundreds must labor continuously on methods of improvement. Multiple ship construction—the building of many ships after the same pattern—has materially increased the tempo of production during the past two years. The inclusion of many ship-building yards in one organization and under one supervisor is another device which greatly expedites the securing of labor, materials, plans, and specifications when and where needed. An excellent illustration of efficiency in the production of ships is found in the northeast section of the country where one man has fifty-one yards under his direction.

SALVAGE AND DAMAGE CONTROL

Even 18,000 ships are not effective unless they are maintained in first class condition. When damaged, the destruction must be kept at a minimum, and repair must be as rapid as possible. To be of any value, a crippled fighting ship must continue to float and its guns must continue to

bear on the enemy. To achieve this end there are usually three damage-control shifts on a ship—forward, midship, and aft. These men are especially skilled in the use of the "fog nozzle" and other fire-fighting equipment, for fighting fire constitutes from fifty to seventy-five per cent of damage-control work. When the armor on a ship is punctured by an enemy bomb it is frequently repaired by dropping steel plates over the side and welding them—under water, with acetylene torches—over the holes while the ship continues to function in battle. Salvage schools provide the training necessary to produce men skilled not only in the salvage and repair of naval materiel, but also in the resuscitation of personnel suffering from undue exposure to the elements.

Much research, with fruitful results, has been devoted to the problems of "bomb-disposal"—getting rid of unexploded time bombs—and to the successful handling of "booby traps." All modern military forces seem skillful in planting these pitfalls and they strive to be equally skillful in averting the disasters which result from them; the United States Navy, especially the Marine Corps, is no exception to this rule and has been unusually successful in the development and application of both skills. Persons assigned to the handling of unexploded bombs and "booby traps" of the enemy have a very personal interest in the successful accomplishment of their mission!

ORDNANCE AND GUNNERY

The Bureau of Ordnance of the Navy Department is allergic to the thought of "too little too late"; it almost goes to the opposite extreme of insistence upon "too much too soon." It is the duty of this bureau to see that not only fighting ships but also our armed merchant ships are adequately equipped with all of the artillery and ammunition to meet all emergencies. Naval ordnance includes all guns, "mouse-traps," "hedgehogs," and other devices for throwing at the enemy whatever needs to be thrown above, on, or under the sea to speed victory for the United Nations. Pow-

der is perfectly adapted to the gun that is to use it. Many naval guns can withstand twenty tons pressure per square inch and fire as many as 240 times per minute! Some are capable of giving a one and one-half ton projectile an initial velocity of 2600 feet per second! With fuses, the trickiest of all ordnance, behaving according to plan, a sixteen-inch projectile will penetrate a sixteen-inch armor and explode within the enemy ship. Gunnery, strictly speaking, is the use of materials which are classified as ordnance. While there is no sharp distinction between the two, ordnance is the servant of gunnery. Accuracy in gunnery requires consideration of velocity and direction of wind, the position and motion of the target, the curvature of the earth's surface, and other variables. Powerful search lights of 800,000,000 candle power with a range of six miles or more, remotely controlled gun directors, and the gyro-compass solve most of these problems while the range is given so accurately by Radar that individual ships from enemy formations which have never been seen are sunk at 19,000 yards!

THE BUREAU OF YARDS AND DOCKS

Just as the Bureau of Ships and the Bureau of Ordnance have their specific tasks, the Bureau of Yards and Docks is responsible for designing, constructing, and maintaining shore establishments—airports, landing fields, dams, dry docks, floating docks, gas plants, railroads, etc.—as may be necessary to establish navy yards, operating bases, ordnance plants, ammunition depots, training stations, hospitals, dispensaries, and all other types of construction necessary to the effective functioning of the Navy. While strategy and tactics are very real and unavoidable problems of modern warfare, the civil engineers of the Navy are concerned primarily with the problem of logistics, or "getting as much of everything as is needed where it is needed when it is needed." During the past two years completed projects include numerous and widely distributed facilities for the construction and repair of ships, naval hous-

ing, concrete tanks for oil storage, the largest hangars in the world, etc. In the one year of 1942, shore installations alone cost \$2,700,000,000, whereas only \$560,000,000 had been spent for the same purpose during the twenty-one years from 1916 to 1937.

In a total war with an *all-ocean* navy, such vast and varied construction demands the skill and services of construction battalions totaling more than 250,000 men and 5,000 officers. These construction experts arrive at the base of a construction project after the necessary materials are on hand. They repair ships when necessary and often remain on a ship to complete the task during battle. At times, to hasten the process, they are charged loading or unloading ships. The ages of these men range from seventeen to fifty, and among them are many of the most skillful from every field of construction. Many hold engineering degrees. They are so versatile and willing that, in addition to their popular title of Seabees, they are frequently referred to as the "can do—will do" boys.

COMBAT AEROLOGY

To understand the timing of attacks by the Navy, one must not overlook the use of weather information, including the "polar front" method of weather prediction developed by the Norwegians during World War I. With the three-dimensional observations made use of by this method, it is possible for aerologists to state in advance the best time for the bombing of cities, landing of troops on enemy coasts, and other military maneuvers, the success of which depends upon weather conditions. There are at least three stages in the application of weather information by the Navy. The *planning* stage is far in advance of the actual naval operation. For example, based upon weather information furnished by aerologists in December, 1941, the Tokyo bombing was planned for the following spring. Military authorities were informed that the ideal time for such an attack would be between April 15 and May 15, the period between the Northeast and southern monsoons. The actual

operation occurred on April 17. In a similar manner, the best time for the invasion of North Africa was found to be between October 15 and November 15, when the surface waves would be five feet or less in height. The strategical stage is usually less than a week in length. It lasts from the time the task force is assembled in the vicinity of the object of attack until the actual attack. Task force commanders receive complete forecasts every twenty-four hours during the last two or three days. The tactical stage is the very last part of the strategical stage. For example, the day set for the invasion of Africa was Thursday, but the actual landing did not occur until Saturday when clouds, waves, and wind were as nearly ideal as possible. Again, in the case of Sicily, the sea was so rough that the commanders, about to turn back, continued upon their course only after they had been advised by aerologists, who had carefully and continuously observed the "polar front" while it was moving the entire distance from north of the British Isles to the Mediterranean, that the wind would shift from the south to the northwest and subside by midnight. The world now knows that the information given was correct.

GEOGRAPHY AND THE NAVY

As has been implied several times already, the size, distribution, and function of the fleet is determined largely by geographical factors. The geography of the Pacific Ocean furnishes a splendid illustration. The area of this ocean is about 69,000,000 square miles and it drains approximately 7,500,000 square miles of land surface. Although the area drained is smaller than that drained by any other ocean it has a population of nearly 752,000,000, slightly more than one-third of all of the earth's inhabitants. Of this total population only 42,000,000 — less than six per cent — are white, and, of this number, many are half-breeds. Thus, with our own country west of the Rockies included, the ratio is about one white to seventeen colored persons in the Pacific

basin. In the twentieth century, an ocean is no longer a barrier as was the case in earlier times before the development of water and air transportation and instantaneous communication around the world by telegraph, telephone, and radio. China, Japan, Russia, the United States, and several other countries are truly Pacific nations; their real interests should become mutual rather than conflicting. In the scramble of several decades for Chinese territory, the plundering nations could not agree upon the method of dividing the spoils. This greed blinded the offending nations to their own best interests and limited China to slight progress until after 1927 under the leadership of Chiang Kai-Shek. The Japanese attack on China in 1937 was a step in the direction of the control of the entire Pacific basin. The attack on Pearl Harbor on December 7, 1941, was a second big step in the same direction. The Japanese were literally traveling in seven league boots, for they did many other significant and far-reaching things concurrently with or immediately after their attack on the United States. They seized additional bases in China; they started military operations against Hong Kong; they moved into the Malay Peninsula; they destroyed our air force in the Phillipines; they attacked Wake Island, Singapore, and Guam. On December 10, they sank the British battleships, the *Repulse* and the *Prince of Wales*; on the 15th, they entered Burma; on the 16th, Borneo; etc; etc; until they had seized most of the islands of the Pacific, including the Phillipines, within a month! Their plan proceeded with clock-like precision until May, 1942, when the tide was checked. In 1941, the military leaders of Japan believed that, if they attacked an unprepared United States, they could deal with China later in a more leisurely manner. They probably believed also that, if they lost their fight with the United States, they, at the same time not only lost China but also their opportunities for the domination of other lands in the basin of the Pacific Ocean. The Japanese apparently miscalculated the

speed with which an industrialized democracy like the United States could mobilize and produce both the material and personnel necessary for defensive and offensive action. Unquestionably, the Pacific will continue to be a factor in determining the strength of the navies of the world until the arrival of that millennium during which there will be neither wars nor the causes or opportunities for wars. The same statement could truthfully be made with respect to the relationship of countless other human practices to geographical factors.

THE EDUCATION AND TRAINING OF NAVAL PERSONNEL

Ships, docks, planes, guns, projectiles, and all other material appurtenances of the Navy would be worthless without a well educated and well trained naval personnel. To see that each person in the Navy receives the preparation which will make him most effective is one of the chief functions of the Bureau of Personnel of the Navy Department. Each enlisted man, through testing and guidance, is fitted into the niche for which he is best qualified. Some, after "boot" training, go directly to a naval assignment; others are distributed among 190 selected schools throughout the country according to their abilities, aptitudes, and previous education.

Before the war, between 500 and 400 men were graduating annually from Naval Reserve Officer Training Corps units prepared to go immediately into active service. These men were, primarily, engineers or members of some other specialized group and, secondarily, naval officers — the exact reverse of graduates of Annapolis. Now, colleges with N.R.O.T.C. units are graduating approximately 1500 officers. These programs are on a permanent basis; they had been in operation prior to the present war and will continue after peace comes.

On July 1, 1943, all N.R.O.T.C. students were ordered to active duty on the basis of the new Navy Training V-12 Program. From March 1, 1944, all members of the N.R.O.T.C. will come from the V-12 program. A pro-

portionate quota from each unit will make up a total of approximately 1450 at the end of each term of four months. Before reporting to the Navy, these men will receive two terms of training in the basic curriculum of the V-12 program plus an additional period of five terms in an N.R.O.T.C. school. Approximately 1000 per month will be completing a total of seven terms by November, 1945.

Before the curriculum and standards for the V-12 program could be developed, it was necessary for naval and educational experts to answer three questions: (1) What should be the qualifications of naval officers? (2) Who should be trained? (3) By what curriculum should they be prepared? To answer these questions it was necessary to make a job analysis of what officers actually do; to select those to be trained, a program of interviews, tests, guidance, record-keeping, and record-using was devised; and finally, through the assistance of advisory committees and consultants, to develop the course of study now known as the Navy Training V-12 Program.

It is now understood by all concerned that the V-12 program is an *integral* and not a *collateral* activity of the Navy; it is a continuing reservoir of officer candidates. Separation of a trainee from this program is not a disgrace. It is, rather, a sincere attempt to place the individual in the work for which he is more adapted and qualified. Because it is intended to prepare men for positions of unusual responsibility, it must, at the same time, sift out those not fitted for difficult training hurdles in the nature of academic work. The curriculum, loaded heavily with English, history, mathematics, physics, engineering drawing, and descriptive geometry, is not easy; but the care with which the men are originally chosen precludes a high percentage of attrition. On a nationwide basis, including all of the men in the 131 institutions participating in the program during the term beginning on July 1, 1945, only four per cent could be considered failures by the middle of the term.

Midshipmen's schools are located at Northwestern University, Notre Dame University, Columbia University, and at the United States Naval Academy. The mission of these training centers is to produce officers with a broad general background rather than specific operational skills — officers capable of understanding and appreciating the significance of the work of men over whom they may be in immediate command. Prior to November 1, 1945, students in these schools included three groups: V-7's from the colleges, SV-7's or inductees, and men from the fleet. The requirement for admission since November 1, 1945, is the completion of a V-12 curriculum.

The first three weeks at a midshipmen's school are devoted to indoctrination, basic ground work, testing, interviews, the issuance of uniforms and books, inoculation, military drill, seamanship, etc. At the end of this period each man is rated upon the basis of all activities in terms of his fitness for the training and from eight to ten per cent of all candidates are directed into other channels. Those found qualified take the oath of Midshipmen and receive two terms of training of six weeks each. The schedule in the school for deck officers is about as follows:

Subject	Hours per week
Navigation	4
Seamanship and Communications	4
Ordnance	5
Damage Control	2
Recognition Training	5
Practical Drill and Training Films	4
Infantry Drill and Inspection	6
Calisthenics and Swimming	2
Study	28
<hr/>	
Total program	58

Throughout the two terms of six weeks each, a mark is given in each subject each week, and men are placed on restriction and deprived of week-end liberty as necessary to achieve the highest possible quality of work. A few are separated from the school at the end of each period of three weeks. The total attrition from

admission to graduation approximates fourteen per cent. The fact that seniority of men completing the course at the same time is based upon class standing is ample indication that much emphasis is placed upon superior achievement.

Upon completion of the midshipmen's course the men are assigned to duty according to the needs in various fields. For the first 10,000 graduates leaving the school at Columbia University, this method resulted in the following distribution:

Local defense	26%
Amphibious forces	21%
Capital ships	7%
Destroyers and P.T. Boats	16%
Auxiliary ships	14%
Deisel Engineering School	4%
Submarine Chasers	8%
Mine Warfare	2%
Radar	1%
Miscellaneous	1%

The training program of the Marine Corps of the Navy is illustration of the fact that each division of the Navy receives preparation suited to the work it is to perform. Because the major mission of the marines is to serve as a landing force and to co-operate with the Army after landing, the training received by men and officers is a hybrid navy and army training, and although an integral part of the Navy, rank among marines has the same designation as comparable rank in the Army. Many marines receive their general education in our colleges and universities. Special training is received at Parris Island, at Quantico, and at other specialized bases. As in other branches of our armed forces, much practice and many maneuvers with regular equipment constitute a regular part of the training of marines. Infantry regiments practice making frontal and flanking attacks against an imaginary enemy; engineering units handle supplies and engage in construction and camouflage work; service troops become expert in handling food and medical supplies, amphibious tractors, bulldozers, etc; artillery units drill until proficiency is acquired in laying ac-

tual barrages of actual projectiles to pave the way for imaginary infantry attacks upon imaginary enemies; snapshooting, sniping, and mortar-throwing are as realistic as possible without the presence of an actual enemy. Candidates for training for commissions in the Marine Corps come from V-12 contingents in the colleges and from the service. Final selection of men from the V-12 program is made after officer qualifications are established at the end of the second semester in college. The Marine Corps, as in other divisions of the Navy, has no room for men "with muscle only"; a mind capable of mastering and applying psychology, history, language, mathematics, science, map reading, etc., is the first requisite.

That thousands of women constitute an important portion of naval personnel is attested by the fact that approximately 4000 WAVES are in training at any given time on the campus of Hunter College in New York City. For the duration, this institution is being operated entirely by and for the Navy. Here trainees remain approximately twenty-six days. During this comparatively brief period the young women are tested, classified, uniformed, drilled, and taught the principal facts about the Navy, the causes of the present war, etc. At the end of this "boot" training, many of the girls are assigned to work for which they already possess the required skills while the remainder—approximately seventy-five per cent—are sent to other schools where they receive further training adapted to their aptitudes and interests. Eventually each girl makes it possible for one more man to be moved to a battle front.

During the present war thousands of civilians, having received commissions in the Navy, have been sent for indoctrination to Fort Schuyler or other training centers. For approximately two months these men are given intensive instruction in the history, traditions, organization, function, equipment, and personnel of the Navy. They are then assigned to the type of duty for which they are best



V-12 boys in the main reading room of the Indiana State Teachers College Library.

qualified by their educational background and civilian experiences.

The Navy, in its training program, uses every conceivable type of visual aids. These devices—maps, charts, diagrams of battle and convoy formations, Disney films, cross sections of Diesel engines, etc.—are usually made by naval personnel and are seldom the products of commercial corporations. In this respect the Navy is setting an example which many colleges and universities might do well to emulate.

NAVAL "INTELLIGENCE"

Success in any war depends largely upon securing early and sufficient pertinent information about the enemy, and at the same time, preventing similar data from coming into possession of the enemy. "Intelligence" is evaluated information and is obtained by the Army, Navy, and Federal Bureau of Investigation working together. It has its uses ashore, at sea, and in foreign countries. Throughout the world, wherever our armed forces may be stationed, our "Intelligence" system has teams working in close co-operation with the appropriate officials of the Army and Navy. When facts and materials with extremely significant "Intelligence" implications are unearthed, they are rushed on fast planes to the United States, reproduced as speedily as possible, and distributed to all bureaus and individuals concerned with their use.

SURGERY AND PREVENTIVE MEDICINE

Surgical and medical care received by men in the Navy now is far superior to that available in previous wars. Today, sick bays, operating rooms,

X-rays, and other equipment comparable with facilities in modern hospitals ashore are found on all of the large fighting ships. Since, in battle, the compartments of a ship are closed, medical personnel and materials are distributed throughout the ship so first aid may be given even while the battle is in progress.

Most cases of surgery result from wounds, burns, and fractures. Some methods of treatment, perfectly correct on shore, are not practical at sea. Take a broken leg, for example. A plaster cast would serve as a "sinker" in case the injured man were compelled to abandon ship; nor would the "weight and pulley" method, seen in hospitals on land, serve so well on a rocking ship. Undoubtedly the three principal means of saving the lives of those wounded at sea are plasma, sulpha drugs, and fast air transportation to base hospitals.

NAVAL RESEARCH AND THE FUTURE

Current practices of the Navy are based upon the latest scientific data discovered and validated through its own research. The Naval Research Laboratory, authorized in 1916 and opening in 1925 on a tract of fifty-eight acres along the Potomac River, now includes an additional 200 acres and has a staff of more than 1700 employees. The main divisions of the Laboratory—each with an outstanding civilian scientist as director—are: (1) Radio, (2) Sound, (3) Mechanics and Electricity, (4) Physical Optics, (5) Chemistry, (6) Metallurgy, and (7) Interior Communications. The names indicate the general type of research carried on by each division. Not a single division is content to be a follower in its field; it insists upon leading. Much advancement has been made since 1941 in the areas of shark repellent fluids, self-sealing gas tanks, underwater sound detection and interpretation, physical optics, the removal of static from planes to improve radio communications, Radar, etc. Beyond any foreseeable date, there will be naval research of types valuable in both war and peace. Nothing is too much to expect.

Oberholtzer . . .

(Continued from page 75)

revelation concerning the duties of a teacher as patterned only from the experience of a student to undertake the responsibilities of teacher. I still have a very high respect for the rural schoolteacher. While it is a difficult undertaking for a new teacher, it probably stimulates as much original thinking and challenge as any beginning teaching position.

Sixty pupils were enrolled in this country school; eight grades; boys and girls over-age and larger than the teacher; fourteen beginners who were—as I visualize them at this date—as eager for learning as the proverbially young bird waiting to be fed from the mother's mouth. In these early teaching days we did not have the supervisors nor the older teachers to confer with, and received not a great deal of sympathy from the parents. I am sure that the rural one-room school may not have been so valuable to the students for what skills they learned, but, from the standpoint of the lessons in democracy and the art of living together as a large family—sixty pupils in a country school—the rural school presents the finest kind of laboratory for the development of some of the finer attributes of democracy; namely, that of working, living, sharing and developing through the co-operative life of the school.

The program of the rural schoolteacher is somewhat difficult. In the township and county in which I worked, the usual plan was to advance the beginning teacher from the least important school gradually to the most important school in the township. In five years I had moved to the topmost school; I was receiving the topmost salary, which was the handsome sum of \$2.50 per day. Ambitious to go on, I acquired the ardent desire to be a principal in one of the village schools, and herein presents the greatest step in the evolution of this teacher's life.

(More about Dr. Oberholtzer's experiences as a teacher will appear in forthcoming issues.)

Russian-American Amity

Lieut. Commander Charles S. Seely, U. S. Navy

Commander Seely is a retired Navy Officer, a prolific writer on national and international problems in leading periodicals, editor of NAVY NEWS, and author of RUSSIA AND THE BATTLE OF LIBERATION. THE JOURNAL is glad to welcome Commander Seely to its columns.

Democracy's war against Fascism is progressing as well as can be expected, and if the three great United Nations, the United States, Russia, and Great Britain, continue to co-operate as well as they have ever since December, 1941, victory is assured. There is no doubt about close co-operation between the United States and Britain, or between Russia and Britain, but the same can not be said about the United States and Russia. There are too many factors which militate against friendship between these latter powers.

Immensely powerful political, economic, and even religious forces in the United States are constantly at work not only trying to make all Americans distrust, fear, and hate Russia, but are also trying to make the Russians distrust the United States. The sooner this fact is recognized the better, because it is of the greatest importance to civilization and humanity that co-operation and friendship between the United States and Russia continue for as far into the future as anyone can see.

Certainly if a serious misunderstanding develops between the United States and Russia during the next few years, not only will the peace be lost and another and more terrible war be made inevitable, but the advancement of civilization may be halted for generations. On the other hand, we can not lose the war or the peace, even though we never fire another shot in Europe, if we maintain our present friendly relations with Russia. Those

relations need not become better to win. We need only to prevent them from deteriorating to a point that will make co-operation impossible.

Beyond any reasonable doubt, the work of promoting American-Russian friendship is the most important non-military activity now demanding the attention of American patriots, and it must be carried on with no respite, even though it is difficult, thankless, and sometimes dangerous. Considering the world military-political-diplomatic situation as a whole, it is obvious that this is no time for complacency. It is a time for action, and all patriots who are fully determined to safeguard American democracy at all cost should now work harder than ever to preserve American-Russian friendship.

It should be clearly understood and kept constantly before the attention of all Americans that, with the possible exception of Fascism, the greatest danger that democracy must remain on guard against is a war between the United States and Russia. And it follows as a matter of course, that no matter what we or the Russians do in Europe or Asia, we must take all precautions to avoid becoming involved in any situation which may give the enemies of Russia in America any grounds for demanding that we send Russia an ultimatum. There are many good reasons for this, and three of the best are as follows: 1. No good, but great harm to humanity would result from such an ultimatum. 2. Russia, or more properly the Soviet Union, is a union of "Common Man" republics, which are now fighting shoulder to shoulder with all the liberty-loving peoples of the world to stamp out Fascism forever, and everybody believing in democracy should help, rather than hinder, them. 3. Russia is mighty and can not possibly

be defeated in Europe or Asia, and ultimatums usually lead to war.

Russia is at least as secure against defeat in the Eastern Hemisphere as the United States is in the Western Hemisphere, and it is this now almost universally accepted military-political fact that assures victory for the United Nations—if friendship between the United States and Russia is maintained.

EDITOR'S NOTE: The opinions and assertions expressed here are the private ones of the writer and are not to be construed as official or reflecting the views of the Navy Department or the naval service at large.

What Next? . . .

(Continued from page 85)

stimulating exchange of ideas and demonstration of techniques or forms. Leisure interests of all sorts would have their organizations and study circles. In short, the continued education of the postwar world will reach and touch every facet of leisure or vocational interest and promote the art of living as much as the skills of making a living.

To insure the successful accomplishment of these three happy changes, it is essential that the schools be free to teach the truth. Pressure groups must not be permitted to stifle full and unbiased discussion of controversial issues. Nor may groups or interests promote under official pressure the teaching as truth something that is merely opinion or the circulation in the schools of propagandistic matter purporting to be factual treatment of affairs touching public interest closely. The colleges being dedicated to the advancement of national well-being and world civilization must pursue truth more ardently than ever before and imbue in all people the ideal of dispassionate objectivity in the gathering of facts while still nurturing a quick and warm emotional reaction to the creative and discriminatory in life.

March, 1944

Around the Reading Table

Burke, Arvid J., *Defensible Spending for Public Schools*. Columbia University Press, New York, 1945. 579 pp.

A definition of defensible spending for public education in the years immediately ahead and, also, a description of conditions which must prevail to achieve adequate support for the schools of our nation, this volume not only enumerates but also outlines methods for the alleviation of most of the financial problems which will confront educational administrators during the next decade. Part One lays the foundation for understanding the necessity of adequate spending for educational purposes, while Part Two deals with the importance of effective budgetary procedures.

Public-school spending is so intimately related and so closely interwoven with every other phase of our national life that it can be understood only when viewed as an integral part of the whole social fabric. Growth in school population, the enrichment and extension of the educational program, the improved status of the teaching profession, the purchasing power of the dollar, factors peculiar to individual communities, population density, urbanism, the size of the administrative unit, scores of other equally pertinent items affect the economic costs of our educational program. To achieve the most desirable educational goals without an undue outlay of money requires both an understanding of these goals and an effective system of accounting and control; administration must safeguard expenditures and, at the same time, insure a level educational achievement befitting our democratic way of life.

Replete with illustrations, tables of statistical data, copious bibliographical references, and constructive suggestions adaptable to any public school corporation in any part of the United States, this book undoubtedly will be an effective means of improving not only the financial management of public schools but also the

personnel of both administration and the classrooms. School superintendents, members of boards of education, and teachers of public school finance will find it practical and stimulating.

HARRY E. ELDER
Indiana State Teachers College

Campbell, William G. and James H. Bedford, *You and Your Future Job*. Society for Occupational Research, Ltd., Los Angeles, 1944. 362 pp.

You and Your Future Job is one of a series of six books published by the Society for Occupational Research, Ltd., founded in 1925. It meets the requirements of a high-school text on vocational opportunities and is a comprehensive, accurate, supplementary source of research information on conditions in the occupational world of 1944.

Throughout the text, the authors have kept clearly in mind the needs of both counselors and high-school pupils in war and peace. Occupational areas are carefully chosen, and each receives adequate treatment as to occupational requirements, necessary training, promotional opportunities, working conditions, and supplementary suggestions for further reading, study, and investigation. These features make it a practical guide for busy counselors who want to meet more effectively individual needs.

This text not only meets the needs of junior-senior high-school pupils, but also adults under and over forty years of age. Much of the rehabilitation of the future will be for civilians who dropped out of school to work, or who lacked interests, motivation, and sufficient knowledge of themselves and the world of work to choose vocations wisely. For men in service who are now planning civilian occupational programs, this book will prove enlightening, stimulating and constructive, since it gives the situation in 1944. The style is simple, clear-cut, and challenging. It can be used as a handbook by parents and pupils since it is easy to single out an occupational area and its related jobs. It

should prove to be an inexpensive but valuable addition to every guidance library in every community.

HELEN EDERLE
Indiana State Teachers College

Flexner, Abraham, *Henry S. Pritchett*.
Columbia University Press, 1945.

Quite by accident Henry S. Pritchett became the first president of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching. Not by accident was the forward movement and expansion of the Foundation crowned with success during the life of this honest man of action. The story of his life is not only the story of the Carnegie Foundation but the analysis of a master mind envisaging an objective of immeasurable proportions.

Mr. Flexner portrays a thoughtful, appraising son of a pioneer Missouri educator as he emerges from the post-Civil War period with shrewd intellectual curiosity, a capacity for great friendships, and the potential qualities of a reformer. Giving up law as his chosen profession because of his father's preference for science, Henry acquires, in his characteristic way, a keen interest in and a mature knowledge of astronomy and mathematics. Rapidly he rises, by successive steps, from astronomical assistantship in the Naval Observatory to the superintendency of the United States Coast and Geodetic Survey, and finally to the presidency of the Carnegie Foundation. Likewise his friends range from college professor to college administrator, from scientist to reformer, from capitalist to philanthropist, from politician to statesman, diplomat and president.

Mr. Flexner discusses separately: (1) Pritchett's professional characteristics; (2) his personality traits with reference to his family, associates, and friends; and (3) the way he deported himself at the many intellectual clubs in which he held membership. But in the final synthesis he exhibits one human personality of noble qualities and attainments. The reader of fact or fiction will find this biography not only entertaining but highly enlight-

ening. It will probably live as a vital record of a distinguished man's life and of a great institution for which Henry S. Pritchett labored a quarter of a century.

ROSE SMALL
Indiana State Teachers College

Report of The Southern Rural Life Conference, *The School and the Changing Pattern of Country Life*, Sponsored by George Peabody College for Teachers, Vanderbilt University, Scarritt College, and Fisk University, May, 1945, 11 pp.

Never, in the history of our nation, has there been a time when more attention has been directed toward the southern rural scene, with all its deficiencies and potentialities, than at the present. Oddly enough, though the leaders of our country in the nation's capitol are aware of the strategic position of the rural southern schools and the necessity for a program of action from them if the rural South is to take its rightful place in the nation, they recently let slip the opportunity for appropriating a subsidy for such effort.

The School and the Changing Pattern of Country Life, is the report of the Southern Rural Life Conference which was sponsored (1945) by George Peabody College for Teachers, Vanderbilt University, Scarritt College, and Fisk University. The introduction of the report clearly sets forth the assets of the South as well as some economic deficiencies, and a point of view as to the solution of the problems of the rural South.

Chapters II, III, IV, and V were prepared by four committees: namely, Agriculture and Industry, Health Education and Services, The Rural Church, and Education in the Rural South. The final chapter, "Suggested Action Programs for the Improvement of Southern Rural Life," was prepared jointly, by the four committees. The foreword was written by John E. Brewton, chairman of the conference planning committee.

Each committee presents a clear and accurate picture of the problem

under consideration. The committee members are in complete agreement that in the solution of these problems education is of primary importance. Federal subsidy, although highly desirable, even necessary, is not the whole answer. As Mr. Dawson, the author of the introduction puts it, "It is not sufficient, merely, to have schools available and all the children attending them. The school must be more than an institution for training children in subject matter that will enable them to climb the educational ladder to higher academic levels. It must be an institution whose program is indigenous to the needs of the pupils and the community it serves."

This report will prove invaluable to teachers of courses in rural education. It is a source of information and a challenge to any person interested in the progress of the rural South.

FAY GRIFFITH
Indiana State Teachers College

Cushman, Robert E., *Our Constitutional Freedoms*. National Foundation for Education in American Citizenship and the Public Affairs Committee, Inc., joint publishers, New York, 1944.

Our Constitutional Freedoms, written by Dr. Robert E. Cushman, president of the American Political Science Association, introduces a series of pamphlets on basic American concepts representing a new approach in citizenship education.

Dr. Cushman presents the background of the American Bill of Rights and stresses the need for zealous protection of our constitutional freedoms against all encroachment. Four fundamental questions are discussed in the pamphlet: The origin of civil liberties, their meaning today, the means provided for safeguarding them, and the share of the citizen in protecting and strengthening constitutional freedoms.

Dr. Cushman declares, "There is not time, either in peace or in war, when the American people can afford to be careless about the civil liberties which our forefathers fought to estab-

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lish. If we are to keep intact the civil liberties on which American democracy rests, and if we are to encourage the extension of those civil rights to nations which have been subject to the slavery of dictatorships, our citizens must understand clearly what these liberties are, where they came from, what dangers beset them, and what means we have to protect them."

In looking toward the postwar period, Dr. Cushman warns that "dangers to civil liberty are not confined to war. They are constantly present in time of peace. History teaches that they are peculiarly ominous in the peace that follows a war. The emotions and energies which helped us defeat the enemy suddenly need new outlets, and we are tempted to focus them on those whom we suspect of being enemies at home. The most drastic invasions of civil liberty which stemmed from the First World War came during the few years just after the war was over."

Dr. Cushman emphasizes that individual citizens must not assume that civil liberties will be protected automatically, that this attitude is "a serious and costly mistake."

The popularly worded study concludes: "If the citizen fails to do his share, civil liberty will not be protected and may be seriously in danger. In general, the government will behave as the people want it to behave."

"The Basic American Concept Series" will present in concise, popular language background information and current facts about fundamental principles and concepts of American society. Written for use in schools and study groups and for popular reading, each issue will analyze and trace the growth and development of one or more of the major ideas which constitute the American way of life. The brief, ten-cent pamphlets will be published jointly by the National Foundation for Education in American Citizenship and the Public Affairs Committee, Inc., 50 Rockefeller Plaza, New York City.

Other pamphlets in the series will

be written by Dean Roscoe Pound of the Harvard Law School, President Henry M. Wriston of Brown University, President Felix Morley of Haverford College, Professor James Washington Bell of Northwestern University, Secretary-Treasurer of the American Economic Association, and Arthur T. Vanderbilt, prominent lawyer and civic leader. The series will be edited by Maxwell S. Stewart, editor of the Public Affairs Pamphlets, and Franklin L. Burdette, executive secretary of the National Foundation.

The National Foundation for Education in American Citizenship and the Public Affairs Committee, Inc., are nonprofit educational organizations. The Foundation is a nonpolitical, nonsectarian public trust organized to develop a national program in American citizenship education and training for leadership. The purpose of the Public Affairs Committee, as expressed in its constitution, is to make available in summary and inexpensive form the results of research on economic and social problems to aid in the understanding and development of American policy.

Research and Postwar Planning, Volume XI. The United Nations Information Office, New York, 1945.

Volume XI of *Research and Postwar Planning*, is a series of studies having particular interest for schools and colleges and all groups concerned with postwar reconstruction.

The volumes are "an invaluable survey of postwar planning," according to the librarian of the Schenectady Public Library. The Curtis Publishing Company librarian described them as "the most comprehensive in the field."

The volume just published is in two parts: a "Survey of Agencies," which covers 15 groups working in the field; and a "Bibliography" comprising a classified list of published material on the war, immediate postwar, and reconstruction periods. A total of 141 agencies in the field of postwar planning has been covered in the series.

Both private and U. S. Government agencies are included, as well as international, British, and other non-American groups.

Copies may be obtained from the United Nations Information Office — purchase price is one dollar (\$1.00) for each part of the volume.

Doctoral Dissertations Accepted by American Universities. The H.W. Wilson Company, 1945. \$2.50.

With the publication of the annual volume for 1942-1945, *Doctoral Dissertations Accepted by American Universities* completes its first decade. And with this tenth volume, the number of dissertations included which had increased year by year to the beginning of the war, returns again to practically the number contained in the first issue. This is without saying due to war conditions, not the least of which is the shortage of staff in the dean's offices, resulting in incomplete information, as well as a diminished number of dissertations to be included.

However, the volume will be useful as its fellows in making available information concerning dissertations accepted during the 1942-1945 college year.

One new university has joined the ranks of those whose dissertations are recorded. And this number contains one new feature, the placing of a symbol after the names of those universities in the italic subtitles in main list, that publish abstracts of the dissertations accepted by them. This both saves considerable typesetting, and enables the readers to find such abstracts whether they appeared before or after this volume was published.

Tips for Teachers, and Giving a Shop Demonstration. The Jam Handy Organization, Detroit, Michigan.

With the teacher shortage, one of the serious problems in both classroom and vocational education, there has been added to the wartime visual training program a supplementary, visualized course in the fundamental techniques of teaching, which has

now been made available to normal, vocational, and industrial schools. This "course" is supplementary to established methods and mediums for teacher training, and its main purpose being to save the time required for the student to complete the course, and to save the time and labor of the instructor.

The series combines a two-reel sound motion picture, *Tips for Teachers*, which is supplementary to nine sound slidefilms, each with disc records (films can be used without the records for discussion purposes if desired) and a second two-reel sound motion picture, *Giving a Shop Demonstration*. This latter unit is chiefly designed to aid in improving the teaching techniques in vocational and school workshops.

In many instances, these films are being used as "refresher" material. They have had widespread uses in various branches of the armed services to improve the teaching techniques of those in whose hands various forms of training rest.

Following is an outline of the nine sound slidefilm subjects:

THE TEACHER

Personal characteristics, appearance, bearing, habits, gestures, speech, attitude. (45 pictures).

SOME PRINCIPLES OF TEACHING

Seven suggestions on how the teacher can shorten the learning process. (46 pictures).

I WANT TO LEARN

How course information is grooved in. (50 pictures).

THE LESSON PLAN

Place and value of planned lessons in motivation, student participation, and assignment. (47 pictures).

MAKE YOUR CHALK TALK

Talking to the eye of the student with chalk, notes on blackboard drawing, and freehand sketching. (68 pictures).

TEACHING A VOCATION

Learning through doing, and basic safety precautions — the "carry over." (49 pictures).

SHOP TEACHING

Formal preparation of shop lessons, and how to demonstrate. (55 pictures).

DESIGNING EXAMINATIONS—Part 1

Value of examinations, and a discussion of the essay type. (55 pictures).

DESIGNING EXAMINATIONS—Part 2

Continuation of discussion on examinations with emphasis on objective type tests. (15 pictures).

The motion picture, *Tips for Teachers*, presents the "P's" of good teaching. It explains the place and value of the teacher's personality, dramatizes the importance of preparation, and gives examples of how the presentation of material is best accomplished. It also shows how the teacher can use effectively, showmanship, salesmanship, etc., to help shorten the learning process.

The substance of the motion picture, *Giving a Shop Demonstration*, is to show how to assemble tools, materials, and equipment, properly and how to conduct practice work by the class in the school shop.

Further particulars may be had by writing the Jam Handy Organization, 2900 E. Grand Blvd., Detroit, Mich.

LYNN S. METCALF

New York

The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, Philadelphia, 1944.

This entire issue *The Annals of the American Academy* is devoted to the subject, "Higher Education and the War." In the twenty-six articles, contributed by college administrators and professors, no phase of the problem is left untouched. Among the topics considered are the following: the effect of the war on college enrollment; college training programs of the armed services; college faculties and the war; probable enrollment after the war; liberal education after the war; professional education after the war; postwar financial support for colleges.

The enrollment figures for November, 1945, of nearly 600 institutions reporting, indicate a decrease of ap-

proximately thirty per cent in the number of civilian students from the November, 1942, totals. The military students go far to replace the civilian losses, but only a limited number of schools have been approved for this work. As to civilian students, it is well stated that "with so many of their brothers serving in the armed forces, American college girls carried on the torch of higher education." Courses in arts and sciences, possessing broadly cultural objectives continue to be the education most largely sought by those entering American colleges and universities. The only financial advantage obtained by institutions engaged in war training is that of keeping faculties busy and physical plants in operation. Grave fears have been expressed over the future of liberal education due to the current emphasis on technical training. Liberal education which has for its true purpose "to fit students to live as men and as citizens in a free society" must not be discarded. However, such education has often become too highly specialized, too abstract and technical. It needs to be humanized and to be made more broadly cultural.

It is estimated that postwar enrollment in higher education will reach 1,750,000 by 1948. This is about 400,000 more than the all time high of 1938. Many problems will present themselves as a result. One of the most important will be that of finance. Little, if any, increase in income from endowment and gifts can be expected. Student fees will likely decrease with the continuation of the wartime policy of selecting young people upon the basis of talent for higher education. The states vary widely in ability to support education. This all means that more support must come from the federal government. The real problem involved here is that of securing this support without undue federal control.

No one concerned with the future of higher education in this country should overlook this valuable collection of studies.

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Teachers College Journal

